# Pacific Islands Vulnerability Assessment Deep Slope Species Narrative

Gabriella N.M. Mukai<sup>1,2</sup>, Donald R. Kobayashi<sup>3</sup>, Bruce Mundy<sup>4</sup>, Joseph O'Malley<sup>3</sup>, Jonatha Giddens<sup>1,5</sup>, and Mark Nelson<sup>6</sup>

Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center
National Marine Fisheries Service
National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration

- 1. Joint Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Research, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa
- 2. School of Life Sciences, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa
- 3. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center
- 4. The Red Sea Development Company
- 5. Ocean Research Explorations
- 6. National Geographic Society Exploration Technology Lab
- 7. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Office of Science and Technology

The Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center conducted a climate change vulnerability assessment for six species groups in the Pacific Islands region (Giddens et al. unpublished). This data report summarizes the following assessments of each species in the deep slope species group: overall climate vulnerability rank (certainty determined by bootstrap following <a href="Hare et al. 2016">Hare et al. 2016</a>), climate exposure, biological sensitivity, distributional vulnerability rank, data quality, climate effects on abundance and distribution, and life history (see <a href="Morrison et al. 2015">Morrison et al. 2015</a> for further details).

Biological sensitivity and climate exposure were evaluated and scored by experts for each species. Biological sensitivity is representative of a species' capacity to respond to environmental changes in reference to a biological attribute. The Deep Slope Species Narrative is accompanied by the Deep Slope Species Profile, which provides further information on each biological sensitivity attribute for each species. The Deep Slope Species Profile was used to help experts evaluate biological sensitivity. Experts were also encouraged to use their own expertise and knowledge when evaluating. Climate exposure is defined as the degree to which a species may experience a detrimental change in a physical variable as result of climate change. The inclusion of climate exposure variables followed 4 guidelines: 1) the variables are deemed to be ecologically meaningful for the species and geography in question, 2) the variables should be available on the NOAA ESRL Climate Change Data Portal for consistency across different CVAs, 3) the variables are available in the temporal and spatial domains suitable for inclusion, and 4) the quality of the modeled product was judged to be adequate for inclusion. By following these guidelines, the exposure scoring was a quantitative exercise as future values could be compared to historical values while incorporating observed patterns of natural variability. This allowed determination

of likely severity of future changes in exposure on a species- and area-specific basis for each exposure variable. Scoring for biological sensitivity and climate exposure is based on scale from 1–4 (Low, Moderate, High, Very High), and scoring for data quality is ranked from 0–3 (No Data, Expert Judgement, Limited Data, Adequate Data). A high score for biological sensitivity and climate exposure indicates greater vulnerability. Expert Score Plots show the variation in expert scoring (5 experts per species). Scoring was completed in 2018. The mean score for each sensitivity attribute or exposure variable was calculated and a logic model was used to determine the component score for biological sensitivity and climate exposure. For example, if there are 3 or more attributes with a mean ≥ 3.5, the sensitivity or exposure component score would be a 4 (Very High). Please see Morrison et al. 2015 for remaining logic model's criteria. Overall climate vulnerability was determined by multiplying sensitivity and exposure component scores; the possible range of these scores was between 1 and 16. The numerical values for the climate vulnerability rank were the following: 1–3 (Low), 4–6 (Moderate), 8–9 (High), and 12–16 (Very High).

Hare JA, Morrison WE, Nelson MW, Stachura MM, Teeters EJ, Griffis RB, Alexander MA, Scott JD, Alade L, Bell RJ, et al. 2016. A Vulnerability Assessment of Fish and Invertebrates to Climate Change on the Northeast U.S. Continental Shelf. PLoS One. 11: e0146756.

Morrison et al. 2015. Methodology for Assessing the Vulnerability of Marine Fish and Shellfish Species to a Changing Climate. U.S. Dept of Commer, NOAA. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-OSF-3, 48 p.

## Contents

Rusty Jobfish ( <i>Aphareus rutilans</i> )	4
Green Jobfish ( <i>Aprion virescens</i> )	7
Deepwater Red Snapper ( <i>Etelis carbunculus</i> )	11
Deepwater Longtail Red Snapper (Etelis coruscans)	16
Hawaiian Grouper ( <i>Hyporthodus quernus</i> )	21
Slender Armorhead ( <i>Pentaceros wheeleri</i> )	24
Goldflag Jobfish ( <i>Pristipomoides auricilla</i> )	30
Pink Snapper ( <i>Pristipomoides filamentosus</i> )	34
Golden-eye Jobfish ( <i>Pristipomoides flavipinnis</i> )	38
Lavender Jobfish ( <i>Pristipomoides sieboldii</i> )	42
Oblique-banded Snapper ( <i>Pristipomoides zonatus</i> )	46

Rusty jobfish - Aphareus rutilans

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate

Biological Sensitivity = Low

■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 75% of scores ≥ 2

Aphareus rutilans	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Habitat Specificity	2	1.8	
Prey Specificity	1.6	2.6	
Adult Mobility	2.1	1.8	
Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.7	2.4	
Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.2	0.8	
Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.8	1.2	
Spawning Cycle	2	1.8	
Sensitivity to Temperature	1.7	2.2	
Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.6	2.2	
Population Growth Rate	2.4	2.2	
Stock Size/Status	1.9	1.4	
Other Stressors	1.4	1.4	
Sensitivity Score	Lo	)W	
Bottom Salinity	1.5	3	
Bottom Temperature	2.6	3	
Current EW	1.3	3	
Current NS	1.2	3	
Current Speed	1.2	3	
Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3	
Ocean Acidification	4	3	
Precipitation	1	3	
Productivity	1.4	3	
Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	
Surface Chlorophyll	1.5	3	
Surface Oxygen	4	3	
Surface Salinity	1.4	3	
Wind EW	1	3	
Wind NS	1	3	
Wind Speed	1	3	
Exposure Score	Very	High	
Overall Vulnerability Rank	Mode	erate	

# Rusty Jobfish (Aphareus rutilans)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [Moderate]. (98% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Low]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Early Life History and Settlement Requirements (2.2) and Population Growth Rate (2.4).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: [Moderate]. Three attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization. However, sensitivity to temperature was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 75% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

# Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

There is no published knowledge of potential impacts of climate change on the species.

# **Life History Synopsis:**

The deepwater snappers, rusty jobfish (HI = "lehi"), are widely distributed in the tropical and subtropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Hawaiian, Samoan, and Mariana Archipelagos. They inhabit seamounts and continental slopes habitats with a wide depth range (100–300 m)[2] and no apparent bottom habitat preference [2]. Similar to other deep slope bottomfish, lehi are considered slow-growing and long-lived with low population productivity rates [3,4].

Lehi are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations that coincide with warmer water temperatures (presumed to occur in the spring thru summer (November, December in the southern hemisphere) [1]. They batch spawn over this protracted spawning season and therefore have indeterminate fecundity. Lehi eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77–0.85 mm) [5]. Larval development was described by Leis and Lee [6]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands. Evidence suggests that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [7]. Lehi larvae are assumed to be similar to other eteline snappers and remain planktonic to a large size [5,6]. Knowledge about deepwater snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but is assumed to range between 40–180 days [3].

There is currently no information on lehi movements, but they are thought to be similar to other Deep 7 bottomfish and not travel great distances outside a small home range. Lehi prey consists of fishes, squids, and crustaceans [8].

Lehi are assessed and managed as part of the Deep 7 bottomfish complex in Hawai'i and as part of a 17 species complex in U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands. As of 2017, the Hawai'i Deep 7 complex and American Samoa and Guam and

the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [9,10].

- 1. Allen GR. Snappers of the world. 1985. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome: FAO.
- 2. Misa WFXE. 2008. Identifying preferred habitats for Hawaii's deep commercial bottomfish species. B.Sc. Thesis, University of Hawaii. Available from: http://www.soest.hawaii.edu/oceanography/GES/Thesis/MisaWilliam2008.pdf
- 3. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish. 26(3):537–562.
- 4. Williams AJ, Loeun K, Nicol SJ, Chavance P, Ducrocq M, Harley SJ, Pilling G, Allain V, Mellin C, Bradshaw C. 2013. Population biology and vulnerability to fishing of deep-water Eteline snappers. J Appl Ichthyol. 29(2):395–403.
- 5. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 6. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci. 55(1):46–125.
- 7. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder:Westview; pp 189–237.
- 8. Honebrink R. 1990. Fishing in Hawaii: a student manual. Education Program, Division of Aquatic Resources, Honolulu, Hawaii. pp. 79.
- 9. Langseth B, Syslo J, Yau A, Kapur M, Brodziak J. 2018. Stock assessment for the main Hawaiian Islands Deep 7 bottomfish complex in 2018, with catch projections through 2022. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-69. pp. 217.
- 10. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.

Green jobfish - Aprion virescens

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate

Biological Sensitivity = Low
■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

Aprion virescens	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Habitat Specificity	2	2.6	
Prey Specificity	2	2.6	
Adult Mobility	2.2	2.4	
Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.5	2.5	
Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.4	1.1	
Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.7	1.7	
Spawning Cycle	2.4	2.6	
Sensitivity to Temperature	1.4	2.6	
Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.8	2.3	
Population Growth Rate	2.7	2.6	
Stock Size/Status	1.9	2.1	
Other Stressors	1.6	1.6	
Sensitivity Score	Lo	)W	
Bottom Salinity	1.4	3	
Bottom Temperature	3	3	
Current EW	1.3	3	
Current NS	1.3	3	
Current Speed	1.2	3	
Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3	
Ocean Acidification	4	3	
Precipitation	1	3	
Productivity	1.4	3	
Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	
Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3	
Surface Oxygen	4	3	
Surface Salinity	1.3	3	
Wind EW	1.1	3	
Wind NS	1	3	
Wind Speed	1.1	3	
Exposure Score	Very	High	
Overall Vulnerability Rank	Mod	erate	

# **Green Jobfish (Aprion virescens)**

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [Moderate]. (64% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Low]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Early Life History and Settlement Requirements (2.4), Spawning Cycle (2.4), and Population Growth Rate (2.7).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: [High]. Three attributes indicated high vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization. However, sensitivity to temperature was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

<u>Data Quality</u>: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

# Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Green jobfish (HI = "uku") are robust, reef-associated snappers and are widespread in the tropical and sub-tropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Hawaiian, Samoan, and Mariana Archipelagos. They inhabit a wide range of habitats from deep lagoons, seaward reefs, and channels of seamounts and continental slopes habitats between 0–180 m on hard bottom, low slope habitats. They are fairly mobile; their home range size is under 10 km and their long-term core areas of use is under 20 km[2].

Uku, despite being part of the Hawai'i bottomfish management unit species, are not assessed and managed as part of the Deep 7 Bottomfish Complex in Hawai'i. An SPR-based approach determined that uku were not experiencing overfishing in Hawai'i [3]. Uku are managed and assessed as part of a 17 species complex in the U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands. As of 2015, the American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [4].

Uku are not dependent on species vulnerable to ocean acidification. Their diet consists of a wide variety of prey items; however, they are mainly piscivorous [5]. Increased sea surface temperature and decreased oxygen availability may impact their habitat [6]. Other potential threats have not been reported.

# Life History Synopsis:

In the main Hawaiian Islands, the size at which 50% of the female population is mature ( $L_{50}$ ) was 425–475 mm fork length (FL) [7]. Uku are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations which coincide with warmer water temperatures (May–October in the northern hemisphere) [5,7]. They spawn multiple batches over this protracted period and, therefore, have indeterminate fecundity [7]. Similar to other lutjanids, uku eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77–0.85 mm) [8]. Larval development was described by Leis and Lee [9]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands [10] until at least 50 mm [9]. Evidence suggests

that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [10]. Uku larvae remain planktonic till at least to 18 mm [8,9]. Knowledge about deepwater snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but is assumed to range between 40–180 days [11].

Juvenile uku settle in shallow sediment flats habitat, which differs from adult habitat [12]. Juveniles and adults were observed very close to the bottom either solitary or in small groups [13]. NWHI tagging studies indicate that uku do not move between atolls and are seasonally site-attached to specific areas up to 12 km in length [14]. Seasonal migrations are thought to be linked to spawning migrations [14]. Uku also exhibit diel movements, visiting feeding areas during the day and spending the evenings in forereef habitats [14]. Collection of regurgitated prey from adults indicates that uku are primarily piscivorous with fish accounting for 95% of the total index of relative importance and small pelagic crustaceans, cephalopods, and pelagic urochordates comprising the remainder of their diet [5]. Similar to other deepwater snappers, uku are considered slow-growing and long-lived with low population productivity rates [11,15]. Uku have a von Bertalanffy growth coefficient of 0.3 [16]. The maximum observed age in Hawai'i [17] and the tropical Indian Ocean [18] was 32 and 27 years, respectively.

- 1. Allen GR. 1985. Snappers of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome:FAO.
- 2. Green AL, Maypa AP, Almany GR, Rhodes KL, Weeks R, Abesamis RA, Gleason MG, Mumby PJ, White AT. 2015. Larval dispersal and movement patterns of coral reef fishes, and implications for marine reserve network design. Biol Rev. 90(4):1215–1247.
- 3. Nadon MO. 2017. Stock assessment of the coral reef fishes of Hawaii, 2016. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NOAA-TM-NMFS-PIFSC-60. Available from: https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/13291
- 4. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.
- 5. Haight WR, Parrish JD, Hayes TA. 1993. Feeding ecology of deepwater Lutjanid snappers at Penguin Bank, Hawaii. Trans Am Fish Soc. 122(3):328–347.
- 6. Asch R, Cheung W, Reygondeau G. 2018. Future marine ecosystem drivers, biodiversity, and fisheries maximum catch potential in Pacific Island countries and territories under climate change. Mar Pol. 285–294.
- 7. Everson A, Williams H, Ito B. 1989. Maturation and reproduction in two Hawaiian eteline snappers, uku, Aprion virescens, and onaga, Etelis coruscans. Fish Bull. 87(4):877-888.
- 8. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 9. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci. 55(1):46–125.

- 10. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder:Westview.pp 189–237.
- 11. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish. 26(3):537–562.
- 12. Parrish F. Identification of habitat of juvenile snappers in Hawaii. 1989. Fish Bull. 87(4):1001-1005.
- 13. Ikehara W. 2006. Bottomfish management and monitoring in the main Hawaiian Islands. In: Shotton R, editor. Deep sea 2003: Conference on the governance and management of deep-sea fisheries. Rome:FAO. pp.289–300.
- 14. Meyer CG, Papastamatiou YP, Holland KN. 2007. Seasonal, diel, and tidal movements of green jobfish (Aprion virescens, Lutjanidae) at remote Hawaiian atolls: implications for marine protected area design. Mar Biol. 151(6):2133–2143.
- 15. Williams AJ, Loeun K, Nicol SJ, Chavance P, Ducrocq M, Harley SJ, Pilling GM, Allain V, Mellin C, Bradshaw CJA. 2013. Population biology and vulnerability to fishing of deep-water Eteline snappers. J Appl Ichthyol. 29(2):395–403.
- 16. Nadon MO, Ault JS, Williams ID, Smith SG, Dinardo GT. 2015. Length-based assessment of coral reef fish populations in the main and Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. PLoS One. 10(8):1–19.
- 17. O'Malley JM, Taylor BM, Andrews AH. 2016. Feasibility of ageing Hawaiian Archipelago uku (*Aprion virescens*) U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, Administrative Report; H-16-06. pp. 32. Available from: https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/12107
- 18. Pilling GM, Millner RS, Easey MW, Mees CC, Rathacharen S, Azemia R. 2000. Validation of annual growth increments in the otoliths of the lethrinid Lethrinus mahsena and the lutjanid Aprion virescens from sites in the tropical Indian Ocean, with notes on the nature of growth increments in Pristipomoides filamentosus. Fish Bull. 98:600-611.

Deep-water red snapper - Etelis carbunculus

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 86% of scores ≥ 2

Etelis carbunculus	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Habitat Specificity	2.2	2.6	
Prey Specificity	2.6	2.2	
Adult Mobility	2.5	2.2	
Dispersal of Early Life Stages	2.1	2.2	
Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.4	1.4	
Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2.1	1	
Spawning Cycle	2.3	2.2	
Sensitivity to Temperature	2.2	2.2	
Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.6	2	
Population Growth Rate	2.6	2	
Stock Size/Status	1.9	1.6	
Other Stressors	1.4	1	
Sensitivity Score	Mode	erate	
Bottom Salinity	1.5	3	
Bottom Temperature	2.8	3	
Current EW	1.3	3	
Current NS	1.3	3	
Current Speed	1.2	3	
Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3	
Ocean Acidification	4	3	
Precipitation	1	3	
Productivity	1.4	3	
Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	
Surface Chlorophyll	1.5	3	
Surface Oxygen	4	3	
Surface Salinity	1.4	3	
Wind EW	1	3	
Wind NS	1	3	
Wind Speed	1	3	
Exposure Score	Very	High	
Overall Vulnerability Rank	Hi	gh	

## Deepwater Red Snapper (Etelis carbunculus)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [High]. (84% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Moderate]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Prey Specificity (2.6) and Population Growth Rate (2.6).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: **[Moderate].** All four attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature.

<u>Data Quality</u>: 86% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

# Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Etelis carbunculus are widely distributed throughout the Indo-Pacific region from East Africa to the Hawaiian Islands and from southern Japan to Australia (34° N–25° S, 35° E–150° W). They are found in temperatures ranging from 14.111 °C to 27.193 °C as well as salinity ranging from 34.565 to 35.619 PPS [1-3]. E. carbunculus are found in 18 Spalding et al. [4] provinces.

*E. carbunculus* occur on hard substrate deepwater slopes of Pacific islands in areas with high structural complexity. Solitary individuals or small groups are found at depths of 90 to 350 m. Catch rate for *E. carbunculus* was highest between 200 and 250 m on Penguin Bank in the main Hawaiian Islands (MHI). *E. carbunculus* were recorded in the MHI at depths of 192–325 m and in temperatures ranging from 10.70 °C to 19.11 °C and averaging 14.58 °C. They have been recorded as deep as 515 m from the Pisce submersible (UH data 2010). *E. carbunculus* adults require shelter and are therefore rarely observed venturing up into the water column. Home range sizes of other deep snappers are reported to be less than 10 km and less than 20 km for long-term core areas of use [1,2,5-7].

Juvenile *E. carbunculus* have been observed at the same depth and rocky habitat preferred by adults. *E. carbunculus* less than 22 cm SL (standard length) were caught during fishing surveys in depths between 183 and 313 m, while juveniles (15 cm FL, fork length) were observed in North Oʻahu and East Oʻahu at depths of 274–290 m and 300 m, respectively. Like adults, juveniles have been observed as solitary individuals or in very small groups, associating very closely with the bottom. Cavities that provide shelter appear to be particularly important to this species [8-11].

*E. carbunculus* are not directly affected by ocean acidification. While their prey items include shrimp and crabs, they are opportunistic and piscivorous. Increased sea surface temperature and decreased oxygen availability may impact their habitat [12]. Effects from other stressors such as pollution and disease have not been reported.

## Life History Synopsis:

Deepwater red snapper (HI = "ehu") are widespread in the tropical and sub-tropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Hawaiian, Samoan, and Mariana

Archipelagos. They inhabit seamounts and continental slopes habitats with greatest abundance between 200 and 310 m on hard bottom, low slope habitats and do not exhibit any ontogenetic habitat shifts [13]. Similar to other deepslope bottomfish, ehu are considered slow-growing and long-lived with low population productivity rates [14,15]. However, they exhibit sexual dimorphic growth with females reaching a larger size than males [16]. Growth also varies latitudinally with larger length-at-age for females and males at higher latitudes (>22° S) than at lower latitudes [16].

Within the Hawaiian Archipelago, there are subregional differences in female size-at-maturity, age structure, and age truncation. In the main Hawaiian Islands, the size at which 50% of the population is mature  $(L_{50})$  was 23.4 cm; nearly 4 cm smaller than in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands population [17]. A driver of the difference was not identified [17]. Fish sampled in the main Hawaiian Islands and Northwestern Hawaiian Islands had a mean age of 6.89 and 12.79 years, respectively [18]. The age truncation and increased number of younger fish in the MHI may be attributed to greater fishing pressures in the subregion [18]. Ehu are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations which coincide with warmer water temperatures (summer thru early fall (July-October in the northern hemisphere) [17]. They batch spawn over this protracted spawning season and therefore have indeterminate fecundity. Preliminary observations suggested that individual female ehu spawn at intervals of several days or more in Hawai'i [17]. Ehu eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77– 0.85 mm) [19]. Larval development was described by Leis and Lee [20]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands [21] until at least 50 mm [20]. Evidence suggests that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [21]. Ehu larvae, similar to other eteline snappers, remain planktonic to a large size, at least to 50 mm [19,20]. Knowledge about Deepwater red snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but is assumed to range between 40 and 180 days [14].

Juvenile ehu settle directly in adult habitats. Juveniles and adults were observed very close to the bottom either solitary or in small groups [22]. There is currently no information to suggest that ehu travel great distances outside a small home range [23]. Collection of regurgitated prey from adults indicated that ehu are primarily piscivorous with fish accounting for 98% of the total index of relative importance and small pelagic crustaceans, shrimp, and cephalopods comprising the remainder of their diet [24].

Ehu are assessed and managed as part of the Deep 7 bottomfish complex in Hawai'i and as part of a 17 species complex in the U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands. As of 2017, the Hawai'i Deep 7 complex and the American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [25,26].

- 1. Allen GR. 1985. Snappers of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome:FAO.
- 2. Everson A. 1983. Spawning and gonadal maturation of the ehu, *Etelis carbunculus*, in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. In: Grigg RW, Tanoue KY, editors. Proceedings of the second symposium on resource investigations in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. Report ANYHOW-SEAGRANT-MR-84-01. Honolulu: University of Hawaii. pp. 128–148.

- 3. OBIS. 2017. Ocean Biogeographic Information System. Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of UNESCO. Available from www.iobis.org.
- 4. Spalding M, Fox H, Allen G, Davidson N, Ferdaña Z, Finlayson M, Halpern B, Jorge MA, Lombana A, Lourie SA, Martin KD. 2007. Marine ecoregions of the world: A bioregionalization of coastal and shelf areas. Bioscience. 57:573–583.
- 5. Green AL, Maypa AP, Almany GR, Rhodes KL, Weeks R, Abesamis RA, Gleason MG, Mumby PJ, White AT. 2015. Larval dispersal and movement patterns of coral reef fishes, and implications for marine reserve network design. Biol Rev. 90(4):1215–1247.
- 6. Haight W. 1989. Trophic relationships, density and habitat associations of deepwater snappers (Lutjanidae) from Penguin Bank, Hawaii. M.Sc. Thesis, The University of Hawaii.
- 7. Ralston S, Polovina J. 1982. A multispecies analysis of the commercial deep-sea hand line fishery in Hawaii. Fish Bull. 80(3):435–448.
- 8. Kelley C, Mundy B, Grau EG. 1997. The use of the Pisces V submersible to locate nursery grounds of commercially important deepwater snappers, family Lutjanidae, in Hawaii. In: Programme and Abstracts, Marine Benthic Habitats Conference. pp. 62.
- 9. Kelley C, Moffitt R, Smith JR. 2006. Mega- to micro-scale classification and description of bottomfish essential fish habitat on four banks in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. Atoll Res Bull. 543:319–332.
- 10. Parrish F. 1989. Identification of habitat of juvenile snappers in Hawaii. Fish Bull. 87(4):1001–1005.
- 11. Amendment 4 to the fishery ecosystem plan for the Hawaiian Archipelago. Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council; 2016.
- 12. Asch R, Cheung W, Reygondeau G. 2018. Future marine ecosystem drivers, biodiversity, and fisheries maximum catch potential in Pacific Island countries and territories under climate change. Mar Pol. 285–294.
- 13. Misa WFXE, Drazen JC, Kelley CD, Moriwake VN. 2013. Establishing species-habitat associations for 4 eteline snappers with the use of a baited stereo-video camera system. Fish Bull. 111(4):293–308.
- 14. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish. 26(3):537–562.
- 15. Williams AJ, Loeun K, Nicol SJ, Chavance P, Ducrocq M, Harley SJ, Pilling GM, Allain V, Mellin C, Bradshaw CJA. 2013. Population biology and vulnerability to fishing of deep-water Eteline snappers. J Appl Ichthyol. 29(2):395–403.
- 16. Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Newman SJ, Vourey E, Abascal FJ, Halafihi T, Kaltavara J, Nicol SJ. 2017. Oceanic, latitudinal, and sex-specific variation in demography of a tropical deepwater snapper across the Indo-Pacific region. Front Mar Sci. 4:382.

- 17. DeMartini EE. 2017. Body size at sexual maturity in the eteline snappers Etelis carbunculus and P ristipomoides sieboldii: subregional comparisons between the main and north-western Hawaiian Islands. Mar Freshw Res. 68(6):1178–1186.
- 18. Nichols RS. 2019. Sex-specific growth and longevity of 'ehu', *Etilis carbunculus* (Family Lutjanidae), within the Hawaiian Archipelago. M.Sc. Thesis, The University of Hawaii.
- 19. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 20. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci. 55(1):46–125.
- 21. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder:Westview. pp 189–237.
- 22. Ikehara W. 2006. Bottomfish management and monitoring in the main Hawaiian Islands. In: Shotton R, editor. Deep sea 2003: Conference on the governance and management of deep-sea fisheries. Rome:FAO. pp.289–300.
- 23. Weng KC. 2013. A pilot study of deepwater fish movement with respect to marine reserves. Anim Biotelemetry. 1(1):17.
- 24. Haight WR, Parrish JD, Hayes TA. 1993. Feeding ecology of deepwater Lutjanid snappers at Penguin Bank, Hawaii. Trans Am Fish Soc. 122(3):328–347.
- 25. Langseth B, Syslo J, Yau A, Kapur M, Brodziak J. 2018. Stock assessment for the main Hawaiian Islands Deep 7 bottomfish complex in 2018, with catch projections through 2022. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum; NMFS-PIFSC-69. pp. 217.
- 26. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum, NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.

Deepwater longtail red snapper - Etelis coruscans

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate

Biological Sensitivity = Low

Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

	Etelis coruscans	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
	Habitat Specificity	2	2.6	
	Prey Specificity	1.9	2.8	
	Adult Mobility	2.2	2.2	
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.9	2.4	
Ee Ee	rly Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2	1.2	
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.9	1	
<u>a</u>	Spawning Cycle	2.2	2.6	
Sensitivity attributes	Sensitivity to Temperature	1.6	2.4	
Sen	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.4	2.2	
	Population Growth Rate	2.9	2	
	Stock Size/Status	1.5	2	
	Other Stressors	1.2	1.4	
	Sensitivity Score	Lo	ow	
	Bottom Salinity	1.4	3	
	Bottom Temperature	2.9	3	
	Current EW	1.3	3	
	Current NS	1.3	3	
	Current Speed	1.2	3	
	Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3	
es	Ocean Acidification	4	3	
ariab	Precipitation	1	3	
Exposure variables	Productivity	1.4	3	
nsoc	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	
X	Surface Chlorophyll	1.5	3	
	Surface Oxygen	4	3	
	Surface Salinity	1.3	3	
	Wind EW	1.1	3	
	Wind NS	1	3	
	Wind Speed	1	3	
	Exposure Score	Very	High	
	Overall Vulnerability Rank	Mod	erate	

## Deepwater Longtail Red Snapper (Etelis coruscans)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [Moderate]. (84% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0) and Surface Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Low]**. Most sensitivity attribute scores were Low. Population Growth Rate was slightly higher, with High and Very High scores (2.9). Low scores were marked for Other Stressors (1.2), Stock Size/Status (1.5), Ocean Acidification (1.4), and Temperature (1.6).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: **[Moderate].** All four attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature.

<u>Data Quality</u>: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. Complexity in Reproductive Strategy was data deficient, with a data quality score of 1.

# Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Etelis coruscans occur throughout the Indian and Pacific oceans from Hawai'i to Samoa, the Mariana Islands, the Cook Islands, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu (35° N–32° S, 29° E–142° W). They are found in salinity ranging from 34.554 to 35.615 PPS and temperatures ranging from 15.22 °C to 19.04 °C [1-3]. They occur in 8 Spalding et al. [4] provinces.

Adults are typically found at the deeper portion of the bottomfish depth range in association with areas of abrupt relief, such as steep drop-offs, ledges, outcrops, pinnacles, canyons, and promontories. They form schools, generally a few to tens of meters off the bottom. In contrast to the benthic juveniles, adults are benthopelagic. *E. coruscans* are caught at the highest rate between depths of 250 and 300 m in the main Hawaiian Islands (MHI) but have been recorded by BotCam deployments in Hawaiii at depths as great as 208–308 m. They have also been recorded down to a depth of 457 m during Pisces submersible dives in Hawaiii. In Hawaiii, they are found in temperatures ranging from 11.65 °C to 18.98 °C [5-9]. Home range size and long-term core area of use size for other deep snappers is less than 10 km and 20 km, respectively [10].

*E. coruscans* juveniles are found in natural or manmade hard substrate shelters. Juveniles have been recorded at 222–350 m off Oʻahu in the MHI, on hard carbonate substrate. They were stationary and close to the bottom or hiding in cavities. Juvenile habitats were close to or part of known adult habitats. Unlike adults, juveniles are closely associated with the bottom near cavities, presumably due to their greater vulnerability to predation [11,12, Kelley, unpub data].

*E. coruscans* have a low sensitivity to ocean acidification. They do not have calcium carbonate exoskeletons or shells and they feed on a wide variety of prey. They do feed on crustaceans but are mainly piscivorous [13]. Increasing sea surface temperature and decreasing oxygen availability may affect their habitat [14].

# **Life History Synopsis:**

Deepwater longtail red snappers (HI = "onaga") are widely distributed in the tropical and sub-tropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Hawaiian, Samoan, and Mariana Archipelagos. They inhabit seamounts and continental slopes habitats with greatest abundance between 200 and 310 m on hard bottom habitats with larger fish occupying relatively higher slope habitats than smaller fish [15]. Similar to other deepslope bottomfish, onaga are considered slow-growing and long-lived with low population productivity rates [16,17]. A refined age reading protocol indicated that onaga can reach up to 55 years in the MHI [18]. Onaga's late maturation and long life make it especially vulnerable to fishing [19].

Female onaga reach maturity at 67.5–72.5 cm FL which equates to 5–6 years old [20]. They are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations that coincide with warmer water temperatures (June–November with a peak in October [20]). They batch spawn over the protracted spawning season and therefore have indeterminate fecundity. Onaga eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77–0.85 mm) and larvae hatch at about 1.7–2.2 mm [21]. Larval development was described by Leis and Lee [22]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands [23] until at least 22 mm [22]. Evidence suggests that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [23]. Knowledge about deepwater snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but is assumed to range between 40 and 180 days [16].

Juvenile onaga are thought to settle directly in adult habitats and were observed very close to the bottom or hiding in cavities [11]. In contrast, adults in Hawai'i form benthopelagic schools up to tens of meters off the bottom. There is currently little information to suggest that onaga travel great distances outside a small home range [24]. Collection of regurgitated prey from adults indicates that onaga are primarily piscivorous with fish accounting for 81% of the total index of relative importance (IRI) with shrimp and pelagic urochordates comprising the remainder of their diet [13].

In the Hawai'i Deep 7 fishery, onaga demands the highest retail price (\$/pound) making it the highest value species and second highest in landings. Onaga are assessed and managed as part of the Deep 7 bottomfish complex in Hawai'i and as part of a 17 species complex in the U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands. As of 2017, the Hawai'i Deep 7 complex and the American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [25,26].

- 1. Allen GR. Snappers of the world. 1985. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome:FAO.
- 2. Ralston S. 1979. A description of the bottomfish fisheries of Hawai'i, American Samoa, Guam and the Northern Marianas. Western Pacific Regional Fisheries Management Council.
- 3. OBIS. 2017. Ocean Biogeographic Information System. Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of UNESCO. Available from www.iobis.org.
- 4. Spalding M, Fox H, Allen G, Davidson N, Ferdaña Z, Finlayson M, Halpern B, Jorge MA, Lombana A, Lourie SA, Martin KD.2007. Marine ecoregions of the world: A bioregionalization of coastal and shelf areas. Bioscience. 57:573–583.

- 5. Amendment 4 to the fishery ecosystem plan for the Hawaiian Archipelago. Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council; 2016.
- 6. Everson A. Onaga. 1986. In: Uchida R, Uchiyama J, editors. Fishery atlas of the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Report. NMFS 38. pp. 108–109.
- 7. Haight W. 1989. Trophic relationships, density and habitat associations of deepwater snappers (Lutjanidae) from Penguin Bank, Hawai'i. M.Sc. Thesis, The University of Hawai'i.
- 8. Moffitt R. 1993. Deepwater demersal fish. In: Wright A, Hill L, editors. Near shore marine resources of the South Pacific. Suva:Institute of Pacific Studies. pp. 73–95.
- 9. Polovina J. 1985. Variation in catch rates and species composition in hand line catches of deepwater snappers and groupers in the Mariana archipelago. In: Proceedings of the Fifth International Coral Reef Congress, Tahiti.
- 10. Green AL, Maypa AP, Almany GR, Rhodes KL, Weeks R, Abesamis RA, Gleason MG, Mumby PJ, White AT. 2015. Larval dispersal and movement patterns of coral reef fishes, and implications for marine reserve network design. Biol Rev. 90(4):1215–1247.
- 11. Ikehara W. 2006. Bottomfish management and monitoring in the main Hawaiian Islands. In: Shotton R, editor. Deep sea 2003: Conference on the governance and management of deep-sea fisheries. Rome:FAO. pp.289–300.
- 12. Kelley C, Mundy B, Grau EG. 1997. The use of the Pisces V submersible to locate nursery grounds of commercially important deepwater snappers, family Lutjanidae, in Hawai'i. In: Programme and Abstracts, Marine Benthic Habitats Conference. pp. 62.
- 13. Haight WR, Parrish JD, Hayes TA. 1993. Feeding ecology of deepwater Lutjanid snappers at Penguin Bank, Hawai'i. Trans Am Fish Soc. 122(3):328–347.
- 14. Asch R, Cheung W, Reygondeau G. 2018. Future marine ecosystem drivers, biodiversity, and fisheries maximum catch potential in Pacific Island countries and territories under climate change. Mar Policy. 285–294.
- 15. Misa WFXE, Drazen JC, Kelley CD, Moriwake VN. 2013. Establishing species-habitat associations for 4 eteline snappers with the use of a baited stereo-video camera system. Fish Bull. 111(4):293–308.
- 16. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish. 26(3):537–562.
- 17. Williams AJ, Loeun K, Nicol SJ, Chavance P, Ducrocq M, Harley SJ, Pilling GM, Allain V, Mellin C, Bradshaw CJA. 2013. Population biology and vulnerability to fishing of deep-water Eteline snappers. J Appl Ichthyol. 29(2):395–403.
- 18. Andrews AA, Brodziak J, DeMartini EE, Cruz E. 2020. Long-lived life history for onaga *Etilis coruscans* in the Hawaiian Islands. Mar Freshw Res. 72(6): 848–859.

- 19. Uehara M, Ebisawa A, Ohta I. 2020. Comparative age-specific demography of four commercially important deep-water snappers: implication for fishery management of a long-lived lutjanid. J Fish Biol. 97: 121–136.
- 20. Everson A, Williams H, Ito B. 1989. Maturation and reproduction in two Hawaiian eteline snappers, uku, Aprion virescens, and onaga, Etelis coruscans. Fish Bull. 87(4):877–888.
- 21. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 22. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci. 55(1):46–125.
- 23. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder:Westview. pp 189–237.
- 24. Weng KC. 2013. A pilot study of deepwater fish movement with respect to marine reserves. Anim Biotelemetry. 1(1):17.
- 25. Langseth B, Syslo J, Yau A, Kapur M, Brodziak J. 2018. Stock assessment for the main Hawaiian Islands Deep 7 bottomfish complex in 2018, with catch projections through 2022. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-69. pp. 217.
- 26. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.

Hawaiian grouper - Hyporthodus quernus

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

Hyporthodus quernus	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Habitat Specificity	1.9	2.8	
Prey Specificity	1.4	2.8	
Adult Mobility	2.7	2.6	
Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.7	2.4	
Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	s 1.8	1.4	
Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.9	1.4	
Spawning Cycle	1.9	2.6	
Sensitivity to Temperature	2.7	2.8	
Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.4	2.6	
Population Growth Rate	3	2.4	
Stock Size/Status	2	2.4	
Other Stressors	1.5	1.4	
Sensitivity Score	Mod	erate	
Bottom Salinity	2	3	
Bottom Temperature	1.9	3	
Current EW	1	3	
Current NS	1	3	
Current Speed	1	3	
Mixed Layer Depth	1.5	3	
Ocean Acidification	4	3	
Precipitation	9	3	
Productivity	1.3	3	
Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	
Surface Chlorophyll	1.1	3	
Surface Oxygen	4	3	
Surface Salinity	1	3	
Wind EW	1	3	
Wind NS	1	3	
Wind Speed	1	3	
Exposure Score	Very	High	
Overall Vulnerability Rank	Hi	gh	

# Hawaiian Grouper (Hyporthodus quernus)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [High]. (92% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Moderate]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Adult Mobility (2.7) and Sensitivity to Temperature (2.7).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: **[High].** All four attributes indicated high vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature.

<u>Data Quality</u>: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

# Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Large-bodied Hawaiian groupers (HI = "hapu'upu'u") is endemic to the Hawaiian Archipelago and Johnston Atoll [1]. They are commonly associated with hard bottom, high slope habitats with ledges and other large cavities between 120 and 239 m [2] but have been captured in depths as shallow as 18 m [3]. Juveniles were noted as bycatch in lobster trap bait cups set in 18–91 m [4]. Other groupers are reported to maintain territories of 3–5 km [5,6]. Hapu'upu'u are assessed and managed as part of the Deep 7 bottomfish complex in Hawai'i. As of 2017, the Hawai'i Deep 7 complex was not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [7].

While hapu'upu'u feed on crustaceans, they are mainly piscivorous and thus not particularly sensitive to ocean acidification [3,5]. Increased sea surface temperatures and decreased oxygen availability may impact their habitat [8]. Effects of other stressors have not been reported.

## **Life History Synopsis:**

Hapu'upu'u are protogynous sequential hermaphrodites and in the NWHI, the size at which 50% of the female population become mature ( $L_{50}$ ) was 580 ±8 mm total length (TL) and the size at adult sex change from female to male was 895 ±20 mm TL [9]. Females began ripening in the fall and remained ripe through April with a February–June main spawning period that followed peak ripening. Spawning is thought to occur in single-male spawning groups that lack intense sperm competition, a typical protogynous species mating strategy. Protogynous species also have highly female-skewed sex ratios and hapu'upu'u are not an exception. Hapu'upu'u eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small to medium in size (0.5–1.2 mm) [10]. Larval development was described by Leis and Carson-Ewart [10]. Grouper larvae hatch at 1.5–2.3 mm with large yolk, unpigmented eyes and unformed mouth and fins, and pigment that changes during yolk absorption [10].

Collection of regurgitated prey from adults indicates that hapu'upu'u are carnivorous opportunistic bottom feeders [3]. Primary prey items include pandalid shrimps, fish, cephalopods, and crabs [3]. Hapu'upu'u are slow-growing and long-lived with a validated maximum age of 50 years and an estimated maximum age of 76 years in the NWHI [11]. They have von Bertalanffy growth coefficient of 0.076 [11].

- 1. Craig MT, Hastings PA. 2007. A molecular phylogeny of the groupers of the subfamily Epinephelinae (Serranidae) with a revised classification of the Epinephelini. Ichthyol Res. 54(1):1–17.
- 2. Misa WFXE. 2008. Identifying preferred habitats for Hawai'i's deep commercial bottomfish species. B.Sc. Thesis, University of Hawai'i. Available from: http://www.soest.Hawai'i.edu/oceanography/GES/Thesis/MisaWilliam2008.pdf
- 3. Seki MP. 1984. The food and feeding habits of the grouper, *Epinephelus quernus* Seale 1901, in the northwestern Hawaiian Islands. In: Grigg RW, Tanoue KY, editors. Proceedings of the second symposium on resource investigations in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands, Vol 2. Honolulu:University of Hawai'i. UNIHISEAGRANT-MR-84-01. pp. 179–191.
- 4. Moffitt RB, Johnson J, DiNardo G. 2006. Spatiotemporal analysis of lobster trap catches: impacts of trap fishing on community structure. Atoll Res Bull. 543:217-236.
- 5. Amendment 4 to the fishery ecosystem plan for the Hawaiian Archipelago. Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council; 2016.
- 6. Green AL, Maypa AP, Almany GR, Rhodes KL, Weeks R, Abesamis RA, Gleason MG, Mumby PJ, White AT. 2015. Larval dispersal and movement patterns of coral reef fishes, and implications for marine reserve network design. Biol Rev. 90(4):1215–1247.
- 7. Langseth B, Syslo J, Yau A, Kapur M, Brodziak J. 2018. Stock assessment for the main Hawaiian Islands Deep 7 bottomfish complex in 2018, with catch projections through 2022. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-69. pp. 217.
- 8. Asch R, Cheung W, Reygondeau G. 2018. Future marine ecosystem drivers, biodiversity, and fisheries maximum catch potential in Pacific Island countries and territories under climate change. Mar Policy. 285–294.
- 9. De Martini EE, Everson AR, Nichols RS. 2011. Estimates of body sizes at maturation and at sex change, and the spawning seasonality and sex ratio of the endemic Hawaiian grouper (Hyporthodus quernus, F. Epinephelidae). Fish Bull. 109(1):123–134.
- 10. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 11. Andrews AH, DeMartini EE, Brodziak J, Nichols RS, Humphreys RL. 2019. Growth and longevity of Hawaiian grouper (Hyporthodus quernus) Input for management and conservation of a large, slow-growing grouper. Can J Fish Aquat Sci.76(10):1874–1884.

Slender armorhead - Pentaceros wheeleri

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

Pentaceros wheeleri	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Habitat Specificity	2.6	2.6	
Prey Specificity	1.3	2.4	
Adult Mobility	1.9	2	
Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.1	2.6	
Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirement Complexity in Reproductive Strategy Spawning Cycle Sensitivity to Temperature Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	uirements 2.6	1.2	
Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2	2	
Spawning Cycle	2.8	2.2	
Sensitivity to Temperature	1.2	2.4	
Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.6	2	
Population Growth Rate	2.1	2.4	
Stock Size/Status	3.2	1.6	
Other Stressors	1.8	1.6	
Sensitivity Score	Mode	erate	
Bottom Salinity	1.6	3	
Bottom Temperature	3	3	
Current EW	1.3	3	
Current NS	1.6	3	
Current Speed	1.4	3	
Mixed Layer Depth	1.7	3	
Ocean Acidification	4	3	
Precipitation	1	3	
Productivity	1.3	3	
Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	
Surface Chlorophyll	1.9	3	
Surface Oxygen	3.8	3	
Surface Salinity	1.5	3	
Wind EW	1	3	
Wind NS	1.2	3	
Wind Speed	1	3	
Exposure Score	Very	1 <del>7</del> 3	
Overall Vulnerability Rank	Hi	gh	

#### Slender Armorhead (Pentaceros wheeleri)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [High]. (97% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during pelagic life stages. Bottom temperatures affecting the adult stage also ranked somewhat high (3.0).

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Moderate]**. One sensitivity attribute scored above a 3.0, and that was Stock Size/Status (3.2). The next highest score was for Spawning Cycle (2.8). Early life history Survival and Settlement Requirements also ranked high (2.6).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: **[High].** Two attributes indicated high vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility and relatively high habitat specialization. However, sensitivity to temperature was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution. [Note that this low scoring by the consensus of experts is contradicted by the data on the optimal temperatures and spawning distribution for this species.]

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

## Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

No studies have directly examined climate effects on slender armorhead. Nevertheless, it appears that this species will be vulnerable to climate change. Although it has a wide range in the central and eastern North Pacific during its pelagic juvenile phase, spawning by adults occurs only at demersal habitats of seamounts in the southern Emperor Seamounts and Northern Hawaiian Ridge. The seamounts are progressively deeper going northward. Koko Seamount at 35°25' N, 171°30' E is the northernmost of the Emperor Seamounts with a depth less than 800 m [1] and is the known northernmost limit of demersal populations of the species [2]. The restricted spawning range of this species, with a northern limit set by available habitat at suitable depths, and the temperature requirements for the species (5-20 °C, optimal at 8-15 °C) suggest that it will be vulnerable to ocean warming. The spawning habitat will likely be restricted toward the northern part of its spawning range as ocean temperatures warm. This vulnerability is increased because of the continued fishing pressure on the species in the northern part of its spawning range and its sporadic recruitment, which leads to its high rank for Stock Size/Status in its Biological Sensitivity. The three Climate Exposure factors ranked high for this species are important because of the habitat of the prolonged pelagic life-stages in the upper 50 m of the ocean. Temperature is important because of that habitat and the restricted temperature- and depth-limited spawning area. Those give this species its high Distributional Vulnerability Rank.

# **Life History Synopsis:**

The slender armorhead was considered to be a population of *Pseudopentaceros richardsoni*, a Southern Hemisphere species originally described in the genus *Pentaceros*, until North Pacific specimens were described as two species, *Pseudopentaceros wheeleri* and *P. pectoralis* by Hardy [3].

Pseudopentaceros wheeleri was based on deep-bodied specimens and P. pectoralis was based on slender ones. Humphreys et al. [4] determined that there was a continuum of body depths between the two nominal species, with the extremes representing individuals of different reproductive states. They

synonymized the two species, selecting *P. wheeleri* for the species name as first revisors. In a phylogenetic analysis of the family Pentacerotidae, Kim [5] determined that *Pseudopentaceros* is a junior synonym of *Pentaceros*, making the scientific name of the slender armorhead *Pentaceros wheeleri*. Publications discussing the species variously used the names *Pseudopentaceros richardsoni*, *Pseudopentaceros wheeleri*, *Pseudopentaceros pectoralis*, and *Pentaceros wheeleri*, depending on their dates of publication. Slender armorhead, the name used by Fishbase, is one of three used by FAO, although the American Fisheries Society common name, North Pacific armorhead, is more appropriate.

The slender armorhead is known from four Spalding et al. [6] provinces, but its documented spawning area is restricted to only one—that of the northern Hawaiian Ridge and southern Emperor Seamounts bounded by 28-26° N,171° E-178° W [2,7]. During the pelagic juvenile stage, it is found in the North Pacific from the region of the Emperor Seamounts and the northern Hawaiian Ridge through the Gulf of Alaska and eastward toward the coast of North America between British Columbia and central California [2,7]. Demersal adult slender armorhead are known from disjunct regions in the western Pacific off Japan, the Ogasawara Islands, at seamounts of the Kyushu-Palau Ridge, in the southern Emperor Seamounts and Hawaiian Ridge, and in the eastern Pacific on the continental shelf and slope of North America from central California to Oregon [2]. There is only a single stock with regional genetic differentiation [4,8,9]. The greatest concentrations of demersal adults are found in the only confirmed spawning areas from Koko Seamount in the southern Emperor Seamount chain to the Hancock Seamounts in the northern Hawaiian Ridge. The aggregations found at these seamounts support commercial trawl fisheries. Large demersal specimens have been captured as far south in the Hawaiian Islands as Ni'ihau, but it is suspected that slender armorhead found south of "K" Bank (29°40'N, 179°20'E) in the Northern Hawaiian Ridge are not part of significant reproductive aggregations (R. Humphreys Jr., personal communication). Adults have not been found to be reproductive at the western and eastern Pacific locations where they have been collected [2]. Demersal adult slender armorhead have been captured at 150-1500 m, with concentrations at 150-800 m and most large individuals shallower than 500 m [2]. Takahashi and Sasaki [10] estimated the optimal temperature range of the species as 8–15 °C and the range that it would tolerate as 5–20 °C. Larvae are thought to be neustonic [7,11,12] and pelagic juveniles primarily inhabit the mixed layer to 50 m (R. Humphreys, Jr., personal communication). Larvae and small juvenile slender armorhead have been found only in waters near seamounts of the southern Emperor Seamounts and Northern Hawaiian Ridge, within a temperature range of 8.6–18.5 °C [7,11,12]. Slender armorhead are carnivorous at all life stages. Juveniles eat copepods, chaetognaths, and larvae of bivalve mollusks [13]. Demersal adults feed on vertically migrating organisms, including copepods, amphipods, euphausids, mysids, sergestid shrimp, salps, pteropods, and myctophids [14-17]. Seki and Somerton [17] found that the estimated daily intake of food by adult slender armorhead at the Hancock Seamount was slightly less than their estimated maintenance ration, suggesting that demersal adults in the spawning population undergo starvation. Known predators of slender armorhead are Bryde's whales (Balaenoptera brydei) and Sei whales (B. borealis) for pelagic juveniles [7,18]. Parasites include the copepod Pennella Hawai'iensis, trematodes, and nematodes. The monogenean gill parasite Microcotyle macropharynx was highly prevalent among the demersal fish collected from SE-NHR seamounts but was absent from pelagic specimens. New recruits could be identified by the absence of mature M. macropharynx. Movement patterns of slender armorhead differ markedly between life stages. Juveniles have a protracted initial pelagic phase of 2+ (perhaps up to 3) years in the epipelagic zone, during which they can range across much of the North Pacific. Evidence from sei whale stomach contents [18] and drift net fishery catches [19] suggests that juveniles form large, surface-oriented aggregations. Boehlert and Sasaki [7] hypothesized that pelagic larvae and juveniles move northeastward from the central Pacific spawning sites and either (1) stay in the subarctic water to return in the westward Alaskan current and then southward in its branch along

the Emperor Seamount chain; or (2) follow a southern route in the California Current and subtropical gyre to the Hawaiian Islands. They speculated that the northern route was the normal migration path, taking 1.5-2.5 years for young fish to complete the circuit. The southern route was expected to take longer, perhaps up to 4.5 years. Adults are thought to be relatively site attached at the slopes of individual seamounts where they undergo diel vertical migrations for feeding [2,20]. Slender armorhead have an unusual reproductive strategy that may make them vulnerable to climate change effects. They spawn in the relatively restricted region of the central North Pacific seamounts in November–February when ocean temperatures there are cool [2]. Adults recruit to seamounts in late spring through midsummer, become demersal, growth ceases, reproductive maturation commences, fat reserves are depleted, condition factors decrease, maturation of females completes (often in the second year after settlement), spawning begins, and the adults become emaciated prior to death a year or two afterwards [4,21]. The scarcity of individuals older than 3 years in the seamounts and the suggestion of starvation of reproductive adults indicate that the slender armorhead may spawn in only one or two seasons and die afterwards [21]. They are asynchronous batch spawners with 4-6 batches of a mean 20,000 eggs each [22]. Eggs have not been described. Larvae and small juveniles are neustonic [12]. Pelagic larval duration is irrelevant for this species because of its prolonged pelagic juvenile phase, which is estimated to have a mean duration of 2.5 years and a suggested maximum of 4.5 years [2] although no juveniles with substantiated ages over 3 years have been found [23]. Because spawning occurs in the winter after the transition from the pelagic to the demersal habitats, these are also the ages of maturity for this species [2]. Maximum ages for slender armorhead have been estimated as 4–8 years [20,24-26], although great uncertainty exists for the validity of some of these estimates. Murakami et al. [23] estimated sex-specific von Bertalanffy life history parameters from pelagic specimens as: Female:  $L_{inf}$  = 290.4 mm, k = 1.0545, and  $t_0$  = 0.2599; Male:  $L_{inf}$  = 308.1 mm, k = 0.9087, and  $t_0$  = 0.1826. Somerton and Kikkawa [20] estimated the mean natural mortality for the demersal females as 0.045/month and demersal males as 0.037/month, with a combined annual estimate of 0.54/year. Slender armorhead cease growth after recruiting to the seamounts, which makes the estimation of von Bertalanffy life history parameters for demersal adults invalid (R. Humphreys Jr., personal communication). Rigorous stock assessments have not been done for this species since the work of Somerton and Kikkawa [20] for the years 1970–1990. Intensive fishing for slender armorhead began in 1967 and the catches declined drastically after 10 years [2]. As a result, a moratorium was imposed on fishing at the Northern Hawaiian Ridge seamounts within the U.S. 200 nmi Exclusive Economic Zone. That moratorium has not been rescinded to date. Fishing continues at the seamounts in international waters. Information from 2008-2018 suggests that recruitment pulses have not resulted in recovery of the population from its steep decline in the 1970s (R. Humphreys Jr., personal communication). The seamount complex of species which uses slender armorhead as its indicator species is considered overfished, although it is acknowledged that recent stock assessments do not exist to rigorously support that status (https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/population-assessments/fishery-stock-status-updates#2019quarterly-updates). Recruitment from pelagic habitats to the seamounts is thought to be independent of spawning stock size, but instead related to factors in the pelagic environment, making management for stock rebuilding problematic [27].

Acknowledgment: We thank Robert L. Humphreys, Jr. (NOAA NMFS Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, retired) for sharing information from his vast knowledge about this species.

# References

1. Clague DA, Dalrymple GB, Green HG, Wald D, Kono M, Kroenke LW. 1980. Bathymetry of the Emperor seamounts. Init Rep Deep Sea Drill Pro. 55:845–849.

- 2. Kiyota M, Nishida K, Murakami C, Yonezaki S. 2016. History, biology, and conservation of Pacific endemics 2. the North Pacific Armorhead, Pentaceros wheeleri (Hardy, 1983) (Perciformes, Pentacerotidae). Pac Sci. 70(1):1–20.
- 3. Hardy GS. 1983. A revision of the fishes of the family Pentacerotidae (Perciformes). New Zeal J Zool. 10(2):177–220.
- 4. Humphreys RL, Winans GA, Tagami DT. 1989. Synonymy and life history of the North Pacific pelagic armorhead, Pseudopentaceros wheeleri Hardy (Pisces: Pentacerotidae). Copeia. 1989(1):142–153.
- 5. Kim SY. 2012. Phylogenetic systematics of the family Pentacerotidae (actinopterygii: Order Perciformes). Zootaxa. 3366:1–111.
- 6. Spalding M, Fox H, Allen G, Davidson N, Ferdaña Z, Finlayson M, Halpern B, Jorge MA, Lombana A, Lourie SA, Martin KD.2007. Marine ecoregions of the world: A bioregionalization of coastal and shelf areas. Bioscience. 57:573–583.
- 7. Boehlert GW, Sasaki T. 1988. Pelagic biogeography of the armorhead, *Pseudopentaceros wheeleri*, recruitment to isolated seamounts in the North Pacific Ocean. Fish Bull. 86(3):453–465.
- 8. Martin AP, Humphreys R, Palumbi SR. 1992. Population Genetic structure of the armorhead, Pseudopentaceros wheeleri, in the North Pacific Ocean: application of the polymerase chain reaction to fisheries problems. Can J Fish Aguat Sci. 49(11):2386–2391.
- 9. Yanagimoto T, Kitamura T, Kobayashi T. 2008. Population structure of pelagic armorhead, *Pseudopentaceros wheeleri*, inferred from PCR-RFLP analysis of mtDNA variation. Nipp Sui Gakk. 74(3):412–420.
- 10. Takahashi Y, Sasaki T. 1977. Trawl fishery in the central North Pacific seamounts. (Translated from Japanese to English, originally published in Northern waters groundfish fishery data (3) pp. 45 Southwest Fisheries Center Honolulu Laboratory, NMFS, NOAA, Honolulu. Transl. No. 22:1–49.)
- 11. Fisheries Agency of Japan. 1998. Report for 1997 *Kaiyo Maru Cruise*. Survey on larval and juvenile pelagic armorhead in the mid-North Pacific Seamounts area. pp. 234. [In Japanese].
- 12. Mundy BC, Moser HG. 1997. Development of early stages of pelagic armorhead *Pseudopentaceros* wheeleri with notes on juvenile *Ps. richardsoni* and larval *Histiopterus typus* (Pisces, Percoidei, Pentacerotidae). Bull Mar Sci. ;61(2):241–269.
- 13. Fedosova RA, Komrakov OE. 1975. Feeding of *Pentaceros richardsoni* frys in the Hawaiian region. Invest Biol Fish Oceanogr TINRO, Vladivostok. 6:52–55. (In Russian, English translation by Van Campen WG, 1985, pp. 4, Translation No. 100; available from the Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, NMFS, NOAA, Honolulu, HI 96822-2396.)
- 14. Iguchi K. 1973. Research by trawl fishery for commercialization of the fishing grounds by the Japan marine fishery resource research center: Outline of trawl fishery investigation for commercialization in the center north Pacific ocean–II. Bull Jap Soc Fish Oceanogr. 23:47–56. (In Japanese, English translation by T. Otsu, 1984)

- 15. Nasu K, Sasaki T. 1984. Chapter 3. Research of the seamountain of the Mid North Pacific by Kaiyomaru. Bull Jap Soc Fish Oceanogr. 1973;23:56–70. (In Japanese, English translation by T. Otsu, pp. 17, Translation No. 93; available Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, NMFS, NOAA, Honolulu, HI 96822-2396.)
- 16. Sasaki T. 1977. The pelagic armorhead, *Pentaceros richardsoni* Smith, in the North Pacific (Kita Taiheiyo no kusakari tsubodai. Bull Jap Soc Fish Oceanogr. 1974;24:156–165. (In Japanese, English translation by T. Otsu, pp. 13, Translation No. 16; available Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, NMFS, NOAA, Honolulu, HI 96822-2396.]
- 17. Seki MP, Somerton DA. 1994. Feeding ecology and daily ration of the pelagic armorhead, Pseudopentaceros wheeleri, at Southeast Hancock Seamount. Environ Biol Fishes. 39(1):73–84.
- 18. Kawamura A. 1982. Food habits and prey distribution of three rorqual species in the North Pacific Ocean. Sci Rep Whales Res Inst. 34:59–91.
- 19. Yatsu A, Shimada H, Murata M. 1993. Distributions of epipelagic fishes, squids, marine mammals, seabirds, and sea turtles in the central North Pacific. Int N Pac Fish Comm Bull. 53(2):111–146.
- 20. Somerton DA, Kikkawa BS. 1992. Population dynamics of pelagic armorhead *Pseudopentaceros wheeleri* on Southeast Hancock Seamount. Fish Bull. 90:756–769.
- 21. Yanagimoto T, Humphreys RL Jr. 2005. Maturation and reproductive cycle of female armorhead *Pseudopentaceros wheeleri* from the southern Emperor-northern Hawaiian Ridge Seamounts. Fish Sci. 71:1059–1068.
- 22. Bilim LA, Borets LA, Platoshima LK. 1986. Characteristics of ovogensis and spawning of the boarfish in the region of the Hawaiian Islands. Fish Oceanogr Hydrobiol Fish Denizens Pac Ocean. 1978;102: 51–57. (In Russian, Engl. translated No. 106; W. G. Van Campen. available from the Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, NMFS, NOAA, Honolulu, HI 96822-2396).
- 23. Murakami C, Yonezaki S, Suyama S, Nakagami M, Okuda T, Kiyota M. 2016. Early epipelagic life-history characteristics of the North Pacific armorhead *Pentaceros wheeleri*. Fish Sci. 82:709–718.
- 24. Borets LA. 1979. The population structure of the boarfish, *Pentaceros richardsoni*, from the Emperor Seamounts and the Hawaiian ridge. J Ichthyol. 9(3):15–20.
- 25. Chikuni S. 1970. The "phantom fish," "kusahari tsubodai"-an outline. Enyo (Far Seas) Fish Res Lab News. 3: 1-4. (In Japanese, English translation by J H Shohara JH, (n.d.) available from the National Marine Fisheries Service, Terminal Island, CA 90731).
- 26. Uchiyama JH, Sampaga JD. 1989. Age estimation and composition of pelagic armorhead *Pseudopentaceros wheeleri* from the Hancock Seamounts. US Fish Bull. 88(1):217–222.
- 27. Wetherall JA, Yong MYY. 1986. Problems in assessing the pelagic armorhead stock on the central North Pacific seamounts. In: Uchida RN, Hayasi S, Boehlert GW, editors. Environment and resources of seamounts in the North Pacific. U.S. Dep Commer, NOAA Technical Report NMFS 43; pp. 73–85.

Goldflag jobfish - Pristipomoides auricilla

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate

Biological Sensitivity = Low

■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 86% of scores ≥ 2

	Pristipomoides auricilla	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
	Habitat Specificity	2	2.8	
	Prey Specificity	1.5	3	
	Adult Mobility	2.3	2	
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.8	2	
Ear Ear	ly Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2	0.8	
tribu	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.6	1	
Sensitivity attributes	Spawning Cycle	2.1	1.6	
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2	2.8	
oc l	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.6	2.4	
	Population Growth Rate	1.8	2.2	
	Stock Size/Status	1.8	2	
	Other Stressors	1.3	1.8	
	Sensitivity Score	Lo	DW W	
	Bottom Salinity	1.6	3	
	Bottom Temperature	2.5	3	
	Current EW	1.3	3	
	Current NS	1.3	3	
	Current Speed	1.2	3	
	Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3	
	Ocean Acidification	4	3	
	Precipitation	1	3	
2	Productivity	1.3	3	
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	
TX	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3	
	Surface Oxygen	4	3	
	Surface Salinity	1.5	3	
	Wind EW	1	3	
	Wind NS	1	3	
	Wind Speed	1	3	
	Exposure Score	Very	High	
	Overall Vulnerability Rank	Mod	erate	

# Goldflag Jobfish (Pristipomoides auricilla)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [Moderate]. (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Low]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Adult Mobility (2.3) and Spawning Cycle (2.1).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: **[Moderate].** All four attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature.

<u>Data Quality</u>: 86% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

# Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Goldflag jobfish (*Pristipomoides auricilla*) are found in both the Indian and Pacific oceans, from Mauritius and Maldive Islands to the Hawaiian Islands and from New Caledonia to Japan (35° N to 25° S, 89° E to 150° W). They occur in temperatures ranging from 18.5 °C to 22.3 °C and salinity ranging from 34.844 to 35.557 PPS [1-3]. They are found in 6 Spalding et al. [4] provinces.

*P. auricilla* is a deepwater snapper that is widespread in the tropical and sub-tropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Samoa and Mariana Archipelagos and, to lesser extent, in the Hawai'i Archipelago [1]. They inhabit seamounts and continental slopes and generally occur over rocky reefs and hard bottoms at depths between 90 to 360 m but are most abundant between 180 to 270 m [1]. In the Mariana Archipelago, they are frequently caught between 90 and 270 m [5]. Goldflag jobfish form small to medium sized schools close to the bottom [1]. The home range size and long-term core areas of use for other deep snappers are reported to be under 10 km and under 20 km, respectively [6].

Goldflag jobfish are assessed and managed as part of the 17 species complex in U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands. They are not part of the Hawai'i Deep 7 complex due to very low catch rates. As of 2015, the American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [7].

They are not particularly sensitive to ocean acidification since their diet consists of a wide variety of prey items [8]. Increased sea surface temperatures and decreased oxygen availability may affect their habitat [9]. Effects of other stressors such as pollution and disease have not been reported.

#### Life History Synopsis:

Goldflag snappers are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations that coincide with warmer water temperatures (year-round with a December–February peak in the southern hemisphere [1]. They batch spawn and therefore have indeterminate fecundity. Their eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77–0.85 mm) [10]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of

continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands. Evidence suggests that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [11]. Goldflag snapper larvae, similar to other eteline snappers, remain planktonic to a large size [10,12]. Knowledge about deepwater snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but is assumed to range between 40 and 180 days [13].

There is currently no information to suggest that goldflag jobfish travel great distances outside a small home range. In the Mariana Archipelago, they feed primarily on large pelagic plankton including fish, crab, shrimp, polychaetes, pelagic urochordates, and cephalopods [8].

Similar to other deepslope bottomfish, goldflag jobfish are considered slow-growing and long-lived with low population productivity rates [13,14]. The von Bertalanffy K was reported to be 0.36 in the Northern Marianas [15]. Age at maturity and maximum age were reported at 2.4 [16] and 7 years [17], respectively. Natural mortality was estimated as 0.62 in the Northern Marianas [15].

- 1. Allen GR. 1985. Snappers of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome:FAO..
- 2. Randall JE. 2007. Reef and shore fishes of the Hawaiian Islands. Honolulu: Sea Grant College Program, University of Hawai'i.
- 3. OBIS. Ocean Biogeographic Information System. Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of UNESCO. 2017. Available from www.iobis.org.
- 4. Spalding M, Fox H, Allen G, Davidson N, Ferdaña Z, Finlayson M, Halpern B, Jorge MA, Lombana A, Lourie SA, Martin KD.2007. Marine ecoregions of the world: A bioregionalization of coastal and shelf areas. Bioscience. 57:573–583.
- 5. Uchida RN. 1983. Summary of environmental and fishing information on Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands: A review of the plankton communities and fishery resources. U.S. Dep Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NOAA-TM-NMFS-SWFC-33. Available from: https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/5545
- 6. Green AL, Maypa AP, Almany GR, Rhodes KL, Weeks R, Abesamis RA, Gleason MG, Mumby PJ, White AT. 2015. Larval dispersal and movement patterns of coral reef fishes, and implications for marine reserve network design. Biol Rev. 90(4):1215–1247.
- 7. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dep Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.
- 8. Seki M, Callahan MW. 1988. The feeding habits of two deep slope snappers, Pristipomoides zonatus and P. auricilla, at Pathfinder Reef, Mariana Archipelago. Fish Bull. 86:807–811.
- 9. Asch R, Cheung W, Reygondeau G. 2018. Future marine ecosystem drivers, biodiversity, and fisheries maximum catch potential in Pacific Island countries and territories under climate change. Mar Policy. 285–294.

- 10. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 11. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder: Westview. pp 189–237.
- 12. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci. 55(1):46–125.
- 13. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish. 26(3):537–562.
- 14. Williams AJ, Loeun K, Nicol SJ, Chavance P, Ducrocq M, Harley SJ, Pilling GM, Allain V, Mellin C, Bradshaw CJA. 2013. Population biology and vulnerability to fishing of deep-water Eteline snappers. J Appl Ichthyol. 29(2):395–403.
- 15. Ralston S, Williams HA. 1988. Depth distributions, growth, and mortality of deep slope fishes from the Mariana Archipelago. U.S. Dept of Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NOAA-TM-NMFS-SWFC-113. pp. 47.
- 16. Polovina J, Ralston S. 1986. An approach to yield assessment for unexploited resources with application to the deep slope fisheries of the Marianas. US Fish Bull. 84(4):759–770.
- 17. Fry GC, Brewer DT, Venables WN. 2006. Vulnerability of deepwater demersal fishes to commercial fishing: Evidence from a study around a tropical volcanic seamount in Papua New Guinea. Fish Res. 81(2):126–141.

Pink snapper - Pristipomoides filamentosus

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate

Biological Sensitivity = Low Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 82% of scores ≥ 2

	Pristipomoides filamentosus	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	Low
	Habitat Specificity	1.5	2.4		□ Modera □ High
	Prey Specificity	1.6	2.4		■ Very Hi
	Adult Mobility	2.3	2.2		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.9	2		]
ites	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2	1.2		
ttribu	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.4	1.6		
Sensitivity attributes	Spawning Cycle	1.8	2.2		
sitiv	Sensitivity to Temperature	1.7	2.2		
Sen	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.5	1.7		
	Population Growth Rate	3	2.4		
	Stock Size/Status	1.8	1.4		
	Other Stressors	1.5	1.6		]
	Sensitivity Score	Low			
	Bottom Salinity	1.4	3		1
	Bottom Temperature	2.9	3		]
	Current EW	1.3	3		1
	Current NS	1.3	3		1
	Current Speed	1.2	3		]
	Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3		1
les	Ocean Acidification	4	3		
ıriab	Precipitation	1	3		]
e ve	Productivity	1.4	3		1
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3		1
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.5	3		]
	Surface Oxygen	4	3		1
	Surface Salinity	1.4	3		1
9.	Wind EW	1	3		1
	Wind NS	1	3		1
	Wind Speed	1	3		1
	Exposure Score	Very	High		1
	Overall Vulnerability Rank	Mod	erate		7

# Pink Snapper (Pristipomoides filamentosus)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [Moderate]. (77% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Low]**. One sensitivity attribute, Population Growth Rate, scored 3.0. The next highest score was for Adult Mobility (2.3).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: [High]. Three attributes indicated high vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization. However, sensitivity to temperature was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 82% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

# Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

There is no published knowledge of potential impacts of climate change on the species.

# **Life History Synopsis:**

Pink snapper (HI = "opakapaka") occur in deep water and are widely distributed in the tropical and subtropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Hawaiian, Samoan, and Mariana Archipelagos and are found on seamounts and continental slope habitats. Juvenile opakapaka occupy nursery areas consisting of flat, featureless, sandy substrate in shallow water (30 m) for the first 2 years before moving into adult habitats [2,3]. Adult greatest abundance is between 90 and 210 m on hard bottom, low slope habitats [2]. Similar to other deepslope bottomfish, opakapaka are slow-growing and long-lived with an estimated maximum age of 43 years in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) [4,5].

The size at which 50% of the main Hawaiian Island opakapaka population matures ( $L_{50}$ ) was 40.7 cm FL for females and 34.3 cm FL for males [6]. The respective equivalent median weight-at-maturity estimates are 1.17 kg and 0.70 kg. This was below the minimum legal harvest weight of 0.45 kg [6]. Opakapaka are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations which coincide with warmer water temperatures, late spring through early fall (May—September in the northern hemisphere) [6]. They batch spawn over this protracted spawning season and therefore have indeterminate fecundity [6]. Research indicated that there are 2 days between batch spawnings [6]. Opakapaka eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77—0.85 mm) [7]. Larval development was described by Leis and Lee [8]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands. Evidence suggests that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [9]. Opakapaka larvae, similar to other eteline snappers, remain planktonic to a large size, at least to 36.7 mm [7,8]. Knowledge about deepwater snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but Gaither et al. [10] suggest a PLD of 60—180 days for opakapaka, which is based on estimated ages of juveniles from other studies [8,11].

A small-scale tagging study suggested that opakapaka maintain a relatively small home range with 53% moving less than 1 km. Some, however, migrate greater distances [12]. Juvenile diets consist of benthic

and, to a lesser extent, a mix of planktonic invertebrates and small nektonic fishes [13]. Collection of regurgitated prey from adults indicates that opakapaka are primarily zooplanktivores with pelagic crustaceans, pteropod molluscs, and pelagic urochordates comprising 91.4% of their diet [14]. Opakapaka feed primarily below 100 m and stay within several meters of the bottom, but they have also been observed above 100 m at night foraging over sediment flats.

Opakapaka are the most important species in the Hawai'i Deep 7 fishery in landings. They are assessed and managed as part of the Deep 7 bottomfish complex in Hawai'i and as part of a 17 species complex in U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands. As of 2017, the Hawai'i Deep 7 complex and American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [15,16]. However, an opakapaka only stock assessment that used the same model structure as the Deep 7 assessment indicated that opakapaka are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [15].

- 1. Allen GR. 1985. Snappers of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome:FAO.
- 2. Misa WFXE, Drazen JC, Kelley CD, Moriwake VN. 2013. Establishing species-habitat associations for 4 eteline snappers with the use of a baited stereo-video camera system. Fish Bull. 111(4):293–308.
- 3. Parrish F. 1989. Identification of habitat of juvenile snappers in Hawai'i. Fish Bull. 87(4):1001-1005.
- 4. Andrews AH, DeMartini EE, Brodziak J, Nichols RS, Humphreys RL. 2012. A long-lived life history for a tropical, deepwater snapper (Pristipomoides filamentosus): bomb radiocarbon and lead—radium dating as extensions of daily increment analyses in otoliths. Can J Fish Aquat Sci. 69(11):1850–1869.
- 5. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish.26(3):537–562.
- 6. Luers MA, DeMartini EE, Humphreys RL. 2018. Seasonality, sex ratio, spawning frequency and sexual maturity of the opakapaka *Pristipomoides filamentosus* (Perciformes: Lutjanidae) from the Main Hawaiian Islands: fundamental input to size-at-retention regulations. Mar Freshw Res. 69(2):325–335.
- 7. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 8. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci. 55(1):46–125.
- 9. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder:Westview. pp 189–237.

- 10. Gaither MR, Jones SA, Kelley C, Newman SJ, Sorenson L, Bowen BW. 2011. High connectivity in the deepwater snapper Pristipomoides filamentosus (Lutjanidae) across the Indo-Pacific with isolation of the Hawaiian Archipelago. PLoS One. 6(12):e28913.
- 11. Moffitt RB, Parrish FA. 1996. Habitat and life history of juvenile Hawaiian pink snapper, Pristipomoides filamentosus. Pac Sci.50(4):371–381.
- 12. O'Malley JM. 2015. A review of the cooperative Hawaiian bottomfish tagging program of the Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center and the Pacific Islands Fisheries Group. US Dept Comer, NOAA Pacific Island Fisheries Science Center, Administrative Report. H-15-05. Available from: https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/4927
- 13. DeMartini EE, Parrish FA, Ellis DM. 1996. Barotrauma-associated regurgitation of food: Implications for diet studies of Hawaiian pink snapper, Pristipomoides filamentosus (family Lutjanidae). Fish Bull. 94(2):250–256.
- 14. Haight WR, Parrish JD, Hayes TA. 1993. Feeding ecology of deepwater Lutjanid snappers at Penguin Bank, Hawai'i. Trans Am Fish Soc. 122(3):328–347.
- 15. Langseth B, Syslo J, Yau A, Kapur M, Brodziak J. 2018. Stock assessment for the main Hawaiian Islands Deep 7 bottomfish complex in 2018, with catch projections through 2022. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-69. pp. 217.
- 16. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.

Golden eye jobfish - Pristipomoides flavipinnis

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate

Biological Sensitivity = Low

Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 86% of scores ≥ 2

	Pristipomoides flavipinnis	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	Low
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	2.2	2.6		□ Moderate □ High
	Prey Specificity	1.6	2.8		■ Very High
	Adult Mobility	2.2	2.4		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.9	2.2		1
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.2	0.8		1
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.6	1.2		1
	Spawning Cycle	1.8	2		1
sitivi	Sensitivity to Temperature	1.8	2.4		
Sen	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.8	2.4		1
	Population Growth Rate	2.1	2.2		]
	Stock Size/Status	1.7	1.8		1
	Other Stressors	1.5	1.6		1
	Sensitivity Score	Lo	ow .		1
	Bottom Salinity	1.7	3		1
	Bottom Temperature	2.3	3		1
	Current EW	1.3	3		1
	Current NS	1.2	3		1
	Current Speed	1.2	3		1
	Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3		1
Exposure variables	Ocean Acidification	4	3		1
	Precipitation	1	3		1
	Productivity	1.3	3		1
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3		1
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3		]
	Surface Oxygen	4	3		1
	Surface Salinity	1.6	3		1
	Wind EW	1	3		1
	Wind NS	1	3		1
	Wind Speed	1	3		1
	Exposure Score	Very	High		1
	Overall Vulnerability Rank	Moderate			1

## Golden-eye Jobfish (Pristipomoides flavipinnis)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [Moderate]. (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Low]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Habitat Specificity (2.2), Adult Mobility (2.2) and Early Life History and Settlement Requirements (2.2).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: [Moderate] Three attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization. However, sensitivity to temperature was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 86% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

## Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Golden-eye jobfish (*Pristipomoides flavipinnis*) are deepwater snappers that are widely distributed in the tropical and sub-tropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. *P. flavipinnis* occur in the Pacific Ocean from Tahiti to southeastern Asia and western Thailand and from Australia to the Ryukyu islands (31° N to 28° S, 93° E to 166° W) [1,2]. *P. flavipinnis* is found in 10 Spalding et al. [3] provinces. Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Samoa and Mariana Archipelagos and are found on seamounts and continental slope habitats. They generally occur over rocky reefs and hard bottoms at depths between 90 and 360 m but are most abundant between 180 and 270 m [1]. In the Mariana Archipelago, they are caught most abundantly between 90 and 270 m [4]. The home range size and long-term core area of other deepwater snappers are less than 10 and 20 km, respectively [5].

*P. flavipinnis* is a widespread deeper water species, occurring in many areas of low fishing pressure, where populations remain stable. Accordingly, they are listed as Least Concern by the IUCN [6]. Goldeneye Jobfish are assessed and managed as part of the 17 species complex in U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands. As of 2015, the American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [7].

*P. flavipinnis* do not have calcium carbonate exoskeletons or shells and do not rely on species vulnerable to ocean acidification as a food source [1]. Increased sea surface temperatures and decreased oxygen availability may affect their habitat [8].

## Life History Synopsis:

Golden-eye jobfish are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations that coincide with warmer water temperatures (year-round with a December–February peak in the southern hemisphere [1]. They batch spawn and therefore have indeterminate fecundity. Their eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77–0.85 mm) [9]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands. Evidence suggests that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [10]. Golden-eye jobfish larvae are

assumed to be similar to other eteline snappers and remain planktonic to a large size [9,11]. Knowledge about deepwater snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but is assumed to range between 40 and 180 days [12]. Similar to other deepslope bottomfish, golden-eye jobfish are considered slow-growing and long-lived with low population productivity rates [12,13]. Age at maturity and maximum age have been reported to be 2.3 and 10.8 years, respectively [6]. Their natural mortality has been reported as 0.6 [14].

There is currently no information to suggest that golden-eye jobfish travel great distances outside a small home range. Golden-eye jobfish feed primarily on benthic fishes and, to a lesser extent, on crustaceans, squids, and pelagic tunicates [1].

### References

- 1. Allen GR. 1985. Snappers of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome:FAO.
- 2. Anderson W, Allen GR. Lutjanidae. Jobfishes. 2001. In: Carpenter KE, Niem VH, editors. FAO species identification guide for fishery purposes. The living marine resources of the Western Central Pacific. Vol. 5. Bony fishes part 3 (Menidae to Pomacentridae). Rome:FAO.
- 3. Spalding M, Fox H, Allen G, Davidson N, Ferdaña Z, Finlayson M, Halpern B, Jorge MA, Lombana A, Lourie SA, Martin KD.2007. Marine ecoregions of the world: A bioregionalization of coastal and shelf areas. Bioscience. 57:573–583.
- 4. Uchida RN. 1983. Summary of environmental and fishing information on Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands: A review of the plankton communities and fishery resources. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NOAA-TM-NMFS-SWFC-33. Available from: https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/5545
- 5. Green AL, Maypa AP, Almany GR, Rhodes KL, Weeks R, Abesamis RA, Gleason MG, Mumby PJ, White AT. 2015. Larval dispersal and movement patterns of coral reef fishes, and implications for marine reserve network design. Biol Rev. 90(4):1215–1247.
- 6. Russell B, Lawrence A, Myers R, Carpenter KE, Smith-Vaniz WF. 2016. Pristipomoides flavipinnis.[cited 2017 May 18]. Database: The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species [Internet]. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2016-3.RLTS.T194401A2331357.en
- 7. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.
- 8. Asch R, Cheung W, Reygondeau G. 2018. Future marine ecosystem drivers, biodiversity, and fisheries maximum catch potential in Pacific Island countries and territories under climate change. Mar Policy.285-294.
- 9. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.

- 10. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder:Westview. pp 189–237.
- 11. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci. 55(1):46–125.
- 12. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish. 26(3):537–562.
- 13. Williams AJ, Loeun K, Nicol SJ, Chavance P, Ducrocq M, Harley SJ, Pilling GM, Allain V, Mellin C, Bradshaw CJA. 2013. Population biology and vulnerability to fishing of deep-water Eteline snappers. J Appl Ichthyol. 29(2):395–403.
- 14. Martinez-Andrade F. 2003. A comparison of life histories and ecological aspects among snappers (pisces: Lutjanidae). Ph.D. Dissertation, Louisiana State University. Available from: https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3270&context=gradschool\_dissertations&httpsredir=1&referer=

Lavender jobfish - Pristipomoides sieboldii

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate

Biological Sensitivity = Low Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 82% of scores ≥ 2

Pristipomoides sieboldii	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	
Habitat Specificity	2	2.6		
Prey Specificity	2.4	2.6		
Adult Mobility	2.2	2.2		
Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.9	2		
Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.2	0.8		
Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.3	1		
Spawning Cycle	2.2	2.2		
Sensitivity to Temperature	1.9	2.4		
Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements  Complexity in Reproductive Strategy  Spawning Cycle  Sensitivity to Temperature  Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.8	1.8		
Population Growth Rate	2.2	2		
Stock Size/Status	1.8	1.4		
Other Stressors	1.6	1.4		
Sensitivity Score	Lo	Low		
Bottom Salinity	1.5	3		
Bottom Temperature	2.7	3		
Current EW	1.3	3		
Current NS	1.2	3		
Current Speed	1.2	3		
Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3		
Ocean Acidification	4	3		
Precipitation	1	3		
Productivity	1.4	3		
Ocean Acidification Precipitation Productivity Sea Surface Temperature Surface Chlorophyll	4	3		
Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3		
Surface Oxygen	4	3		
Surface Salinity	1.4	3		
Wind EW	1	3		
Wind NS	1	3		
Wind Speed	1	3		
Exposure Score	Very	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank	Mod	erate		

### Lavender Jobfish (Pristipomoides sieboldii)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [Moderate]. (99% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Low]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Prey Specificity (2.4), Adult Mobility (2.2), Early Life History and Settlement Requirements (2.2), Spawning Cycle (2.2), and Population Growth Rate (2.2).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: [Moderate]. Three attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization. However, sensitivity to temperature was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

<u>Data Quality</u>: 82% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

## Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Lavender Jobfish (HI = "kalekale") is a deepwater snapper that is widely distributed in the tropical and sub-tropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. They range from East Africa to Hawai'i and as far north as Japan and are found in temperature ranging from 12.55 °C to 22.17 °C and salinity ranging from 34.674 to 35.615 PPS [1-3]. Kalekale occurs in 12 Spalding et al. [4] provinces.

Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Hawaiian, Samoan, and Mariana Archipelagos. They inhabit seamounts and continental slope habitats with greatest abundance between 180 and 270 m but no affinity to a specific habitat. However, a habitat shift to hard bottom, high slope from other habitat types was observed within the size class of 25–35 cm [5]. Juveniles are often found in the upper half of the depth range, 145–187 m [6]. Kalekale in Hawai'i are often observed in large schools [5]. There is currently no information on kalekale movements but they are thought to be similar to other Deep 7 bottomfish and not travel great distances outside a small home range.

Kalekale are assessed and managed as part of the Deep 7 bottomfish complex in Hawai'i and as part of a 17 species complex in U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands. As of 2017, the Hawai'i Deep 7 complex and American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [7,8].

While kalekale do not have a calcium carbonate shell or exoskeleton, they mainly feed on items such as crustaceans and molluscs [9]. Increased sea surface temperatures and decreased oxygen availability may impact their habitat [10]. Effects of other stressors have not been reported.

# **Life History Synopsis:**

Within the Hawaiian Archipelago, there are subregional differences in female kalekale size-at-maturity. In the main Hawaiian Islands, the size at which 50% of the population is mature ( $L_{50}$ ) was 23.8 cm, nearly 5 cm smaller than the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands population [11]. A driver of the difference was not

identified [11]. Kalekale are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations which coincide with warmer water temperatures in summer through early fall (June–September in northern hemisphere) [11]. They batch spawn over this protracted spawning season and therefore have indeterminate fecundity. Preliminary observations suggest that individual female kalekale spawn daily during the spawning season in Hawai'i [11]. Kalekale eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77–0.85 mm) [12]. Larval development was described by Leis and Lee [13]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands. Evidence suggests that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [14]. Kalekale larvae, similar to other eteline snappers, remain planktonic to a large size, at least to 53.8 mm [12,13]. Knowledge about deepwater snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but is assumed to range between 40 and 180 days [15]. Similar to other deepslope bottomfish, kalekale are considered slowgrowing and long-lived with low population productivity rates [15,16].

Collection of regurgitated prey from adults indicates that kalekale are primarily zooplanktivorous with pelagic small crustaceans, pteropod molluscs, and pelagic urochordates accounting for 92.5% of the total index of relative importance [9].

### References

- 1. Allen GR. 1985. Snappers of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome: FAO.
- 2. Randall JE. 2007. Reef and shore fishes of the Hawaiian Islands. Honolulu: Sea Grant College Program, University of Hawai'i.
- 3. OBIS. 2017. Ocean Biogeographic Information System. Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of UNESCO. 2017. Available from www.iobis.org.
- 4. Spalding M, Fox H, Allen G, Davidson N, Ferdaña Z, Finlayson M, Halpern B, Jorge MA, Lombana A, Lourie SA, Martin KD.2007. Marine ecoregions of the world: A bioregionalization of coastal and shelf areas. Bioscience. 57:573–583.
- 5. Misa WFXE, Drazen JC, Kelley CD, Moriwake VN. 2013. Establishing species-habitat associations for 4 eteline snappers with the use of a baited stereo-video camera system. Fish Bull.111(4):293–308.
- 6. Kelley C, Mundy B, Grau EG. 1997. The use of the Pisces V submersible to locate nursery grounds of commercially important deepwater snappers, family Lutjanidae, in Hawai'i. In: Programme and Abstracts, Marine Benthic Habitats Conference. pp. 62.
- 7. Langseth B, Syslo J, Yau A, Kapur M, Brodziak J. 2018. Stock assessment for the main Hawaiian Islands Deep 7 bottomfish complex in 2018, with catch projections through 2022. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum.NMFS-PIFSC-69. pp. 217.
- 8. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.

- 9. Haight WR, Parrish JD, Hayes TA. 1993. Feeding ecology of deepwater Lutjanid snappers at Penguin Bank, Hawai'i. Trans Am Fish Soc. 122(3):328–347.
- 10. Asch R, Cheung W, Reygondeau G. 2018. Future marine ecosystem drivers, biodiversity, and fisheries maximum catch potential in Pacific Island countries and territories under climate change. Mar Policy. 285-294.
- 11. DeMartini EE. 2017. Body size at sexual maturity in the eteline snappers Etelis carbunculus and Pristipomoides sieboldii: subregional comparisons between the main and north-western Hawaiian Islands. Mar Freshw Res. 68(6):1178–1186.
- 12. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2004. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 13. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci.;55(1):46–125.
- 14. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder: Westview. pp 189–237.
- 15. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish. 26(3):537–562.
- 16. Williams AJ, Loeun K, Nicol SJ, Chavance P, Ducrocq M, Harley SJ, Pilling GM, Allain V, Mellin C, Bradshaw CJA. 2013. Population biology and vulnerability to fishing of deep-water Eteline snappers. J Appl Ichthyol. 29(2):395–403.

Oblique-banded snapper - Pristipomoides zonatus

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate

Biological Sensitivity = Low

Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 79% of scores ≥ 2

	Pristipomoides zonatus	Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	Low
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	2	2.4		□ Moderate □ High
	Prey Specificity	1.7	2.6		■ Very High
	Adult Mobility	2.3	1.8		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.9	1.8		1
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.3	0.8		1
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.8	0.8		1
	Spawning Cycle	2	2		1
	Sensitivity to Temperature	1.8	2		1
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.8	2		1
	Population Growth Rate	2	2.2		1
	Stock Size/Status	1.8	1.2		1
	Other Stressors	1.4	1.2		1
	Sensitivity Score	Lo	ow .		1
	Bottom Salinity	1.5	3		1
	Bottom Temperature	2.7	3		]
	Current EW	1.3	3		1
	Current NS	1.3	3		1
	Current Speed	1.2	3		1
Exposure variables	Mixed Layer Depth	1.2	3		1
	Ocean Acidification	4	3		1
	Precipitation	1	3		
	Productivity	1.4	3		1
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3		1
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3		]
	Surface Oxygen	4	3		1
	Surface Salinity	1.4	3		1
	Wind EW	1	3		1
	Wind NS	1	3		1
	Wind Speed	1	3		]
	Exposure Score	Very High		]	
	Overall Vulnerability Rank	Mod	erate		1

## Oblique-banded Snapper (Pristipomoides zonatus)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: [Moderate]. (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

<u>Climate Exposure</u>: **[Very High].** Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), Ocean Oxygen (4.0) and Air Temperature (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

<u>Biological Sensitivity</u>: **[Low]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Adult Mobility (2.3) and Early Life History and Settlement Requirements (2.3).

<u>Distributional Vulnerability Rank</u>: [High]. Three attributes indicated high vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization. However, sensitivity to temperature was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

<u>Data Quality</u>: 79% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

## Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

There is no published knowledge of potential impacts of climate change on the species.

## **Life History Synopsis:**

Deepwater oblique-banded snappers ("gindai" in Japanese) are widely distributed in the tropical and sub-tropical Indo-Pacific region [1]. Within the fished areas of the U.S. jurisdiction, they occur in the Hawaiian, Samoan, and Mariana Archipelagos. They inhabit seamounts and continental slope habitats with a preference for hard substrate and high slopes such as escarpments with high vertical relief [2,3]. Gindai preferred depth in Hawai'i (200–259 m) [2] and at Johnston Atoll (215–250 m) [4] was estimated to be much more limited relative to other bottomfish. Similar to other deepslope bottomfish, gindai are considered slow-growing and long-lived with low population productivity rates [5,6].

Gindai are gonochoristic broadcast spawners that form spawning aggregations that coincide with warmer water temperatures (presumed to occur in the summer through early fall (July–October in northern hemisphere) [1]. They batch spawn over this protracted spawning season and therefore have indeterminate fecundity. Gindai eggs are pelagic, spherical, and small in size (0.77–0.85 mm) [7]. Larval development was described by Leis and Lee [8]. Larvae are pelagic and distributed off the edge of continental shelves and offshore from oceanic islands. Evidence suggests that they may display a vertical migration pattern in which they avoid surface waters during the day [9]. Gindai larvae are assumed to be similar to other eteline snappers and remain planktonic to a large size [7,8]. Knowledge about deepwater snapper pelagic larval duration is limited but is assumed to range between 40 and 180 days [5].

Juvenile gindai are thought to settle directly in adult habitats and were observed very close to the bottom either solitary or in small groups [10]. There is currently no information on gindai movements but they are thought to be similar to other Deep 7 bottomfish and not travel great distances outside a small home range. Gindai were described as demersal carnivores that preyed upon benthic and demersal invertebrates and fishes [3]. Collection of regurgitated prey from adults indicates that gindai

are primarily piscivorous with fish accounting for 56% of the total index of relative importance followed by pelagic urochordates at 38.4% [11].

Gindai are assessed and managed as part of the Deep 7 bottomfish complex in Hawai'i and as part of a 17 species complex in U.S. Pacific Territories of American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands. As of 2017, the Hawai'i Deep 7 complex and American Samoa and Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands complexes are not considered overfished nor is overfishing occurring [12,13].

### References

- 1. Allen GR. 1985. Snappers of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lutjanid species known to date. FAO Species Catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 6. Rome:FAO.
- 2. Misa WFXE. 2008. Identifying preferred habitats for Hawai'i's deep commercial bottomfish species. B.Sc. Thesis, University of Hawai'i. Available from: http://www.soest.Hawai'i.edu/oceanography/GES/Thesis/MisaWilliam2008.pdf
- 3. Seki M, Callahan MW. 1988. The feeding habits of two deep slope snappers, Pristipomoides zonatus and P. auricilla, at Pathfinder Reef, Mariana Archipelago. Fish Bull. 86:807–811.
- 4. Ralston S, Gooding RM, Ludwig GM. 1986. An ecological survey and comparison of bottom fish resource assessments (submersible versus handline fishing) at Johnston Atoll. Fish Bull. 84:141–154.
- 5. Newman SJ, Williams AJ, Wakefield CB, Nicol SJ, Taylor BM, O'Malley JM. 2016. Review of the life history characteristics, ecology and fisheries for deep-water tropical demersal fish in the Indo-Pacific region. Rev Fish Biol Fish. 26(3):537–562.
- 6. Williams AJ, Loeun K, Nicol SJ, Chavance P, Ducrocq M, Harley SJ, Pilling GM, Allain V, Mellin C, Bradshaw CJA. 2013. Population biology and vulnerability to fishing of deep-water Eteline snappers. J Appl Ichthyol. 29(2):395–403.
- 7. Leis JM, Carson-Ewart BM. 2044. The larvae of Indo-Pacific coastal fishes: An identification guide to marine fish larvae. 2nd ed. Leiden: Brill.
- 8. Leis JM, Lee K. 1994. Larval development in the lutjanid subfamily Etelinae (Pisces): The genera Aphareus, Aprion, Etelis and Pristipomoides. Bull Mar Sci. 55(1):46–125.
- 9. Leis JM. 1987. Review of the early life history of tropical groupers (Serranidae) and snappers (Lutjanidae). In: Polovina JJ, Ralston S, editors. Tropical snappers and groupers: biology and fisheries management. Boulder:Westview. pp 189–237.
- 10. Kelley C, Mundy B, Grau EG. 1997. The use of the Pisces V submersible to locate nursery grounds of commercially important deepwater snappers, family Lutjanidae, in Hawai'i. In: Programme and Abstracts, Marine Benthic Habitats Conference. pp. 62.
- 11. Haight WR, Parrish JD, Hayes TA. 1993. Feeding ecology of deepwater Lutjanid snappers at Penguin Bank, Hawai'i. Trans Am Fish Soc. 122(3):328–347.

- 12. Langseth B, Syslo J, Yau A, Kapur M, Brodziak J. 2018. Stock assessment for the main Hawaiian Islands Deep 7 bottomfish complex in 2018, with catch projections through 2022. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-69. pp. 217.
- 13. Yau A, Nadon M, Richards B, Brodziak J, Fletcher E. 2016. Stock assessment updates of the Bottomfish Management Unit species of American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam in 2015 using data through 2013. U.S. Dept Commer, NOAA Technical Memorandum. NMFS-PIFSC-51. pp. 54.